



Original Investigation

Genetic polymorphism and structure of wild and zoo populations of the fosa (Eupleridae, Carnivora), the largest living carnivoran of Madagascar

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ABSTRACT

Cryptoprocta ferox, or fosa, is the largest living endemic carnivoran of Madagascar, with presumably high dispersal capacity, and for which no broad scale phylogeographic study has been conducted to date. This species is considered “Vulnerable” by the IUCN and the subject of a captive breeding program; approximately 113 individuals are held in 57 zoos. The aim of this study was to examine the genetic structure and polymorphism within both captive and wild populations, to determine possible lineage variation, and to make recommendations for the captive breeding program. For this purpose, we analyzed three mitochondrial (Cytochrome b, ND2, Control Region) and one nuclear (Beta-fibrinogen intron 7) markers. The results showed an overall low level of genetic polymorphism, likely related to its dispersal capacity, and some genetic structure possibly associated with geographical barriers, such as large rivers. The genetic diversity of the captive population was greater than that of wild individuals included herein, suggesting that the captive population encompasses a considerable proportion of the genetic diversity of the species. This genetic variability is presumably the consequence of frequent imports of wild animals into zoos from different areas of Madagascar, and subsequent exchanges between zoos. Based on the low overall genetic polymorphism of the species and the absence of deeply divergent lineages, we recommend the continued mixing of captive animals. Our results may help the management of the fosa in the wild and in captivity, which is crucial for a species that faces many threats in the wild, in particular habitat degradation and hunting pressure. In any case, enhanced protection of the species and its forested habitat is urgently needed.

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Introduction

Knowledge of population genetic structure for species under threat is crucial, allowing for the identification of conservation or

management units (Manel et al., 2003). Dispersal capacity is known to have a major influence on population genetic structure and gene flow (Cushman and Lewis, 2010). Home range area, geographic range, and body mass are the most important predictors of dispersal capacity in mammals (Whitmee and Orme, 2013).

Cryptoprocta ferox Bennett, 1833 (family Eupleridae), also known by the vernacular name fosa or fossa, is a solitary carnivoran endemic to Madagascar. The Malagasy carnivorans (Eupleridae) separated 18–24 Mya from their closest relatives, the Herpestidae (mongooses); within the Eupleridae, the fosa was found to be either

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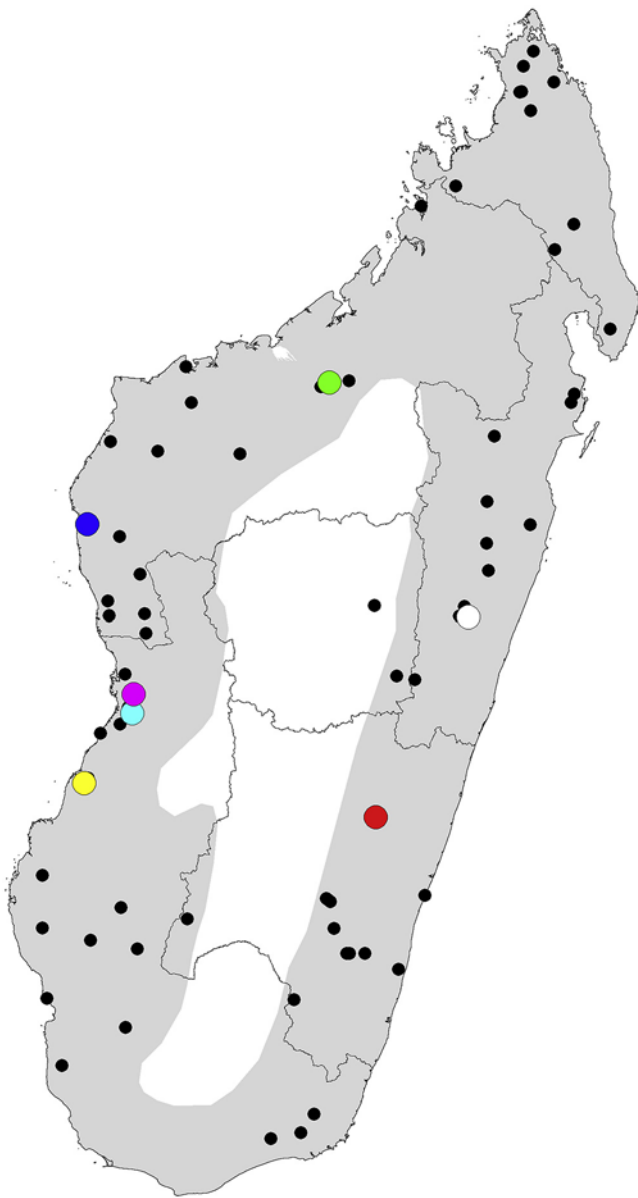


Fig. 1. Distribution of *Cryptoprocta ferox* based on IUCN (2016) in grey, and from Goodman (2013) (dots), and localities of samples (color dots) used in this study. Green: Ankarafantsika; dark blue: Ambinda, Beanka Forest; white: Ambavaniasy; pink: Ambadira; light blue: Kirindy (CNFEREF) Forest; yellow: Kirindy Mitea; red: Ranomafana National Park. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

close to the Malagasy mongooses (Galidiinae) or to the other Euplerinae (falanouk and Malagasy civet; see Yoder et al., 2003; Poux et al., 2005). The fosa is the largest living terrestrial predator on the island, sexually dimorphic, with larger males in nature reaching a body mass of over 10 kg. Its diet includes principally mammals, with lemurs often representing the main prey (Rasoloarison et al., 1995; Dollar et al., 2007; Goodman, 2009; Lühns and Dammhahn, 2010; Lühns et al., 2013). Their hunting techniques are linked to particular anatomical features, including large footpads, semi-retractable claws, and flexible ankles (Taylor, 1989; Veron, 1999), allowing them to move and hunt with considerable dexterity both on the ground and in trees.

This species has large home ranges of up to 26 km² and daily movements of up to 5–7 km (Dollar, 1999; Hawkins, 2003; Lühns and Kappeler, 2013). Fosas occur at low densities in forested habi-

tats (Hawkins and Racey, 2005; Gerber et al., 2010), to which they are generally restricted, and have the broadest distribution of any Eupleridae (see Fig. 1). The fosa is classified as Vulnerable (IUCN, 2016) because of habitat loss, hunting, other forms of persecution, and the effects of introduced carnivorans (Farris et al., 2015, 2016; IUCN, 2016). Madagascar has indeed undergone a massive reduction of its forest cover over the last decades, and few large blocks remain (Harper et al., 2007; Irwin et al., 2010). Human population growth and socio-economic problems drive reduction and degradation of natural habitat, and wildlife hunting is common (Irwin et al., 2010). Even though some endemic mammal species may have adapted to environmental degradation (e.g., members of the subfamily Tenrecinae), large predators, such as the fosa, are affected by habitat destruction and anthropogenic disturbance.

Molecular studies on the other Malagasy euplerids (Galidiinae species: Bennett et al., 2009; Jansen Van Vuuren et al., 2012; Veron et al., 2017; Euplerinae: *Eupleres goudotii*, Veron and Goodman, 2018) have shown some phylogeographic structure, particularly in *Galidia elegans*. Given that *C. ferox* is a large animal with implicitly higher dispersal capacity, it might be anticipated to exhibit little phylogeographic structure and low genetic polymorphism. However, the genetic structure of this species has not been examined across its range.

Captive breeding programs in zoological parks aim to support the survival of endangered species (Ebenhard, 1995; Gippoliti, 2011), although the ultimate goals and efficiency of such programs have been debated (Snyder et al., 1996; McPhee, 2003; Alroy, 2015). Captive breeding of *Cryptoprocta* started in 1974, and has been notably successful; a total of 316 individuals have been held in captivity and, in 2014, as reported in the studbook, the living population was 136 individuals housed in 57 institutions around the world (Reiter, 2015); more recent unpublished information has the figure at 113 individuals (T. Tetzlaff, pers. comm.). As early as 1954, this species was held in the Smithsonian National Zoological Park (NZIP, Washington, D.C., USA), and since 1985, exhibited at the San Diego Zoo (California, USA). In Europe, it has been exhibited in the Basel Zoo (Switzerland) since 1972. The first captive breeding in Europe started in 1974 at the Montpellier Zoo (France) (Albignac, 1975) and in North America in 1989 at San Diego Zoo. To date, only one zoological garden in Asia holds this species (Ueno Zoological Gardens, Tokyo, Japan; Reiter, 2015). The Parc Zoologique et Botanique de Tsimbazaza (PBZT, Antananarivo, Madagascar), has had successful captive breeding since 2011 (Reiter, 2015).

According to the *Cryptoprocta* studbook (Reiter, 2015), wild caught animals have been transferred to zoos around the world, in 1954 and 1966 (NZIP), 1967 (San Diego Zoo), 1972 (Basel; Naples, USA), 1973 (Montpellier), 1980 (Johannesburg, South Africa), 1981 (Basel), 1995 (private, then to Duisburg, Germany; Tilburg, Netherlands), 1997 (San Antonio, USA), 1998 (Bester, South Africa), 1999, 2000, and 2009 (PBZT), 2000 (Bester, South Africa; Cedar Creek, USA), 2002 (Omaha, USA), and 2003 (Lubbock, USA). Information on the original geographic origin on Madagascar of these captive animals is unknown, with the exception of those brought to Montpellier Zoo in 1973, which came from the east coast (Albignac, 1975). Exchanges of animals between zoos in Madagascar, Europe, and North America have been conducted to help maintain the genetic diversity of the species (Reiter, 2015). No molecular studies have investigated the genetic diversity of the captive fosa population, specifically the presence of different lineages, which is crucial for the correct management of a captive breeding program.

There are several other reasons for the need of detailed analyses of genetic divergence in populations of *Cryptoprocta*. A larger species, *C. spelea*, is known to have occurred on the island and its presumed extinction is thought to have taken place in the

List of the samples included in this study. For each sample, we report: the identification number, the specimen/sample number (AMNH: American Museum of Natural History, New York; FMNH: Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago; ISFM: Institut des Sciences de l'Évolution, Montpellier; MCZ: Harvard Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University, Cambridge; MNHN: Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris; NHM: The Natural History Museum, London), the GenBank (Gbk) number, and locality (B: born; Dist.: District; ND: no data; NP: National Park; Prov: Province; Res.: Reserve; SR: Special Reserve; Stb: Studbook number). Genbank numbers in bold represent new sequences produced in this study; others from: Yoder et al. (2003), Flynn et al. (2005), Koepfli et al. (2006), Patou et al. (2009), Hassassin and Veron (2016), and Veron et al. (2017). Identification numbers in bold correspond to samples from dry specimens and tooth.

Species	Identification #	Sample/voucher #	Cytb Gbk #	CR Gbk #	ND2 Gbk #	FCB Gbk #	Locality
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 10056	AMNH AMCC 110056	KX592625	MG45211	MG452276	MG452181	Ankarafantsika, Ampijoroa, Mahajanga Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 10059	AMNH AMCC 110059		MG45212		MG452182	Ankarafantsika, Ampijoroa, Mahajanga Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 10062	AMNH AMCC 110062		MG45213		MG452277	Ankarafantsika, Ampijoroa, Mahajanga Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 10069	AMNH AMCC 110069		MG45214		MG452278	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 10072	AMNH AMCC 110072		MG45215		MG452278	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 10075	AMNH AMCC 110075		MG45216		MG452278	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18634	AMNH AMCC 118634		MG45217		MG452218	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18635	AMNH AMCC 118635		MG45218		MG452219	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18636	AMNH AMCC 118636		MG45219		MG452219	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18637	AMNH AMCC 118637		MG45220		MG452220	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18638	AMNH AMCC 118638		MG45221		MG452221	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18647	AMNH AMCC 118647		MG45222		MG452222	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18661	AMNH AMCC 118661		MG45223		MG452223	Ankarafantsika, Ampijoroa, Mahajanga Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18665	AMNH AMCC 118665		MG45224		MG452224	Ankarafantsika, Ampijoroa, Mahajanga Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18666	AMNH AMCC 118666		MG45225		MG452225	Ankarafantsika, Ampijoroa, Mahajanga Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18666	AMNH AMCC 118666		MG452148		MG452281	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18666	AMNH AMCC 118666		MG452149		MG452282	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18670	AMNH AMCC 118670		MG452150		MG452187	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFA1 18671	AMNH AMCC 118671		MG452151		MG452188	Kirindy Mitea, Ankotrofotsy, Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFY928681	ISIS 027951	AY928681	MG452152		MG452283	ND (San Diego Zoo, ISIS 027951, Stb # 0059)
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CFI 3	MNHN C-13/ISEMT832		MG452152		MG452283	ND (Montpellier Zoo, France, captured in East coast, Stb # 0008)
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF02	CF02		MG452231		MG452189	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF03	CF03		MG452232		MG452189	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF04	CF04		MG452233		MG452189	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF05	CF05		MG452234		MG452189	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF06	CF06		MG452235		MG452189	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF07	CF07		MG452236		MG452189	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF08	CF08		MG452237		MG452189	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF09	CF09		MG452238		MG452190	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF10	CF10		MG452239		MG452191	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF11	CF11		MG452240		MG452191	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF12	CF12		MG452241		MG452192	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF13	CF13		MG452242		MG452192	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF14	CF14		MG452243		MG452193	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF15	CF15		MG452244		MG452193	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF16	CF16		MG452245		MG452194	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF17	CF17		MG452246		MG452194	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF18	CF18		MG452247		MG452195	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.
<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	CF19	CF19		MG452248		MG452195	Kirindy Forest (CNFEREF), Toihara Prov.

past few millennia (Goodman et al., 2004; Crowley, 2010; Meador et al., 2017); however, it is in the realm of possibility that remnant populations are still extant. Further, on the basis of local folk taxonomy, it has been suggested that two forms of *fosa* occur on the island – *fosa mainty* or “black *Cryptoprocta*” and *fosa mena* or “reddish *Cryptoprocta*”; the latter form is said to be smaller than the former (Decary, 1950). Hence, there are aspects that potentially call into question the monotypic taxonomy of living *Cryptoprocta*.

The purpose of this study was, therefore, to 1) evaluate the genetic polymorphism and geographic structure of wild *fosa* across its natural range, 2) identify potential geographic lineages/conservation units, 3) identify lineages of the captive breeding animals, and 4) evaluate the degree of genetic polymorphism of the captive population. For this purpose, we analyzed genetic diversity of wild and captive individuals of this species using sequences from three mitochondrial and one nuclear markers. These data provide insight into the dispersal capacity of this large predator, or other factors, such as environmental, that may have influenced the geographic structure and patterns of genetic polymorphism in this species. These data may also reveal management units and help to detect the presence of different lineages and genetic polymorphism in captive populations. The results of this study should be useful for the management of *Cryptoprocta* in the wild and captivity.

Material and methods

Sampling, extraction, PCR and sequencing

We analyzed 69 samples (blood, tissues, hair, teeth, and dry tissues from museum specimens) of animals referred to as *Cryptoprocta ferox* (Table 1, Fig. 1). DNA was isolated following a cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB)-based protocol (Winnepenninckx et al., 1993). For museum (dry tissue) and tooth samples, we added dithiothreitol (DTT 1 M, ca 8–15 µL per extract) during tissue lysis to break up disulfide bonds, and we increased the lysis time (up to 72 h).

We sequenced three mitochondrial fragments: Cytochrome b (Cytb), NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2 (ND2), and the hypervariable region 1 of the Control Region (CR), using previously described primers (Cytb: Veron and Heard, 2000; Veron et al., 2004, 2014; ND2: Sorenson et al., 1999; CR: Palomares et al., 2002). To provide an evolutionary assessment independent from mitochondrial markers, we also amplified the nuclear marker Beta-fibrinogen intron 7 (FGB) using primers of Yu and Zhang (2005).

Polymerase chain reactions (PCRs) were performed as in Veron et al. (2014), with annealing temperatures of 50 °C for Cytb and ND2, 61 °C for CR, and 59 °C for FGB. PCR products were sent to Eurofins Genomics (Ebersberg, Germany) for purification and sequencing (on Applied Biosystem® 3730XL DNA Analyzer). Sequences were edited and aligned manually using Bioedit (version 7; Hall, 1999).

Phylogenetic and haplotypic network analyses

Phylogenetic analyses for each marker were performed using Neighbor-Joining (NJ) and Maximum Likelihood (ML), as implemented in MEGA6 (Tamura et al., 2013). We rooted the phylogenetic analyses with representatives of the six other genera of Eupleridae, and one Herpestidae, *Urva fusca*. For ML, the best-fitting model was estimated prior to the analyses using MEGA6, following the Akaike information criterion (AIC). The selected model was implemented in the ML analyses and node robustness

Table 2

Summary of Cytb intraspecific distances within Eupleridae species (this study and Veron et al., 2017).

	Overall mean intrageneric distance	Range of pairwise distances	N
<i>Eupleres</i>	0.4%	0–1.4%	10
<i>Galidia</i>	1.5%	0–3%	12
<i>Galidictis</i>	0.6%	0–1.2%	8
<i>Mungotictis</i>	0.3%	0–2%	56
<i>Salanoia</i>	0.5%	0–1.2%	10
<i>Cryptoprocta</i>	0.6%	0–2%	39

was assessed through 1000 bootstrap replicates. Trees were visualized using FigTree 1.4.0 (Rambaut, 2012). We compared resulting topologies and node support; nodes were considered as supported when bootstrap values were $\geq 70\%$.

We employed DNAsp 5.10 (Librado and Rosas, 2009) for defining haplotypes. Network (v 4.6, www.fluxus-engineering.com) was used to construct haplotype median-joining networks (Bandelt et al., 1999) for each of the fragments. We computed genetic distances (p-distances within and between groups) and genetic diversity (haplotype and nucleotide diversity) using MEGA6 and DNAsp5.10.

Pedigree of captive breeding populations

We used the information (parents and sex) of the 316 captive *Cryptoprocta ferox* from the 2014 Studbook (Reiter, 2015) to reconstruct the genealogy using Pedigree 2.4 (Garbe and Da, 2008).

Results

Genetic analyses

A total of 71 individuals (our 69 samples presented herein and two from GenBank, see Table 1) was analyzed for the four fragments. New sequences have been deposited on GenBank (Accession numbers: MG452145 to MG452301). A few samples, particularly teeth and dried tissue from museum specimens, as well as some poorly preserved hair samples, yielded no or partial sequences (see Table 1). Only 17 samples yielded sequences from the three mitochondrial regions, including those from four zoos and three localities of wild individuals, and only 14 of these yielded sequences for the four fragments. However, the CR fragment was obtained for most samples (65).

The Cytb fragment (length: 1140 bp; number of variable sites: 26; number of parsimony informative sites: 22; n = 39) showed an overall mean distance of 0.6% (see Table 2). The ML tree (model GTR + G + I, Fig. A 1) showed poor resolution and little structure, apart for one clade including captive individuals in different zoos.

The CR fragment (length: 535 bp; number of variable sites: 47; number of parsimony informative sites: 42; n = 65) showed an overall mean distance of 2.1%. The ML tree (model HKY + G; Fig. A 2) was better structured than that derived from Cytb, and composed of two main clades: 1) an animal from Beanka Forest (central west, near Ambinda), one individual from Ranomafana (central east), and some zoo individuals; and 2) all the other wild and zoo individuals.

The ND2 fragment (length: 1044 bp; number of variable sites: 10; number of parsimony informative sites: 9; n = 25) displayed an overall mean distance: 0.2%. The ML tree (model GTR + G + I) showed poor resolution, and only one small group of zoo individuals clustered together.

The FGB fragment (length: 665 bp; number of variable sites: 1; number of parsimony informative sites: 1; n = 28) provided little information, and the only variable site appeared to be heterozygotic.

Table 3

Genetic diversity estimates within Eupleridae species (this study and Veron et al., 2017). N: number of samples; n: number of sites used; h: number of haplotypes; Hd: haplotype diversity; Pi: nucleotide diversity; S: number of polymorphic sites; and k: average number of nucleotide differences. For *Cryptoprocta*, data for Cytb are shown for all individuals, and separately for wild individuals and zoo individuals; and also, the information is provided for a longer fragment (incomplete sequences deleted).

	Cytb							CR							FGB								
	N	n	h	Hd	Pi	S	k	N	n	h	Hd	Pi	S	k	N	n	h	Hd	Pi	S	k		
<i>Eupleres</i>	8	321	2	0.2500	0.00078	1	0.250	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
<i>Galidia</i>	12	253	5	0.8636	0.01270	7	3.212	13	401	11	0.9744	0.04572	60	18.333	5	338	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Galidictis</i>	8	1118	5	0.7857	0.01035	27	11.571	4	381	2	0.5000	0.00131	1	0.500	8	665	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Mungotictis</i>	56	1125	6	0.5130	0.00124	27	1.394	51	502	19	0.8361	0.01806	39	9.065	46	589	4	0.3903	0.00007	1	0.043	1	0.043
<i>Salanoia</i>	10	248	3	0.7333	0.00565	3	1.400	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
<i>Cryptoprocta-all</i>	39	251	4	0.5857	0.00456	3	1.144	65	404	11	0.5890	0.01856	34	7.498	28	587	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Cryptoprocta-wild</i>	29	253	4	0.3128	0.00224	4	0.567	51	424	7	0.3490	0.00693	24	2.444	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
<i>Cryptoprocta-zoos</i>	11	593	3	0.6545	0.00368	5	2.182	14	436	5	0.7582	0.03685	34	16.066	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
<i>Cryptoprocta-Cytb-long</i>	36	686	4	0.5317	0.00223	6	1.530																
<i>Cryptoprocta-wild-Cytb-long</i>	27	1129	3	0.2108	0.00159	19	1.801																

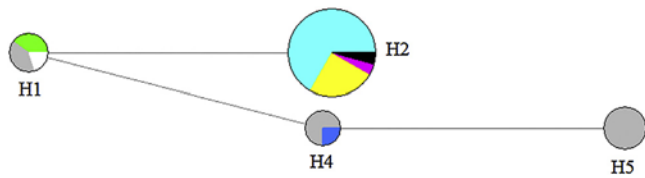


Fig. 2. Median joining network of Cytb haplotypes. The size of each circle is proportional to the haplotype frequency; the shortest link corresponds to one mutation. For color definitions, see Fig. 1.

Cytb haplotype networks were constructed using all sequences, and then only the most complete sequences (longer analyzed fragment). With all sequences (251 bp, $n = 39$, see Table 3, Fig. 2, Fig. 2), four Cytb haplotypes were obtained, each separated by one to two mutations; H2 grouped wild individuals from several localities in the southwest; H1 included wild individuals from the east and north-west and from zoos in Paris and Montpellier; H4 comprised a wild animal from the central west (Beanka Forest) and zoo individuals, and H3 clustered only captive individuals. When using a longer fragment (686 bp, $n = 36$), we also obtained four haplotypes, separated by one to three mutations; H2 grouped several localities from the southwest, while other haplotypes each comprised one field locality and zoo samples.

We obtained 11 CR haplotypes (404 bp, $n = 65$, see Table 3, Fig. 3) separated by one to 32 mutations; they are grouped into several haplogroups. One corresponded to the northwest region (H1, H2, H5, H7), also including samples from zoos in Duisburg, Paris, and Montpellier; one in the southwest region (H3, H4); one in the center-west region (H10), and closely related individuals (H11) from Duisburg zoo (Germany) and Parken zoo (Sweden). The southeast individuals (H8, H9) formed two very distant haplotypes (separated by 19 mutations).

We obtained three ND2 haplotypes (852 bp, $n = 25$, see Table 3) separated by one to six mutations. The main haplotype, H1, assembled individuals from field localities and one zoo individual, while other haplotypes grouped individuals from zoos.

Measures of polymorphism were calculated for each marker, and separately for wild and zoo individuals (see Table 3). The results showed low haplotype and nucleotide diversity for *C. ferox* (lower than other analyzed euplerids, with the exception of *Mungotictis*), and a comparatively higher genetic diversity in the captive *Cryptoprocta* (based on Cytb, $n = 11$; and CR, $n = 14$) as compared to the wild animals (based on Cytb, $n = 29$; and CR, $n = 51$).

Within *Cryptoprocta*, the Cytb pairwise distances ranged from 0.0 to 2.0% (Table 2). The Cytb distances between localities ranged from 0.0 to 0.8% (Table A 1). The distances between the four Cytb haplotypes obtained with all sequences (haplotypes based on the 251 bp shared by all sequences) ranged from 0.2 to 0.8% (using the complete Cytb sequences, i.e. 1140 bp). Within *Cryptoprocta*, the CR pairwise distances ranged from 0.0 to 3.0%, and the CR distances between localities ranged from 0.0 to 1.8%.

Genealogy of captive *Cryptoprocta*

The genealogy included 316 individuals, with information on sex and parentage taken from the studbook (Reiter, 2015). The pedigree obtained was complex, with no isolated lineages. This result is consistent with the numerous exchanges between zoos of breeding *Cryptoprocta* (Fig. A 3; Reiter, 2015).

Discussion

Cryptoprocta ferox is the largest living terrestrial predator on Madagascar, occurring across much of the island (Goodman, 2013), and with considerable dispersal capacity, particularly associated with forest ecosystems (see Lührs, 2012). Hence, as would be anticipated based on these life-history traits and that forest cover was much more extensive on the island until recent historical times, this species, based on samples from across a good portion of its geographic range, including different forest biomes, shows low intraspecific genetic polymorphism (e.g. Cytb: average: 0.6%, ranging from 0.0 to 2.0%, and almost no polymorphism for FGB, which has been shown to vary within carnivoran species, see e.g. Patou et al., 2010; Veron et al., 2015a, 2015b). The measured level of polymorphism was lower than that of another relatively broadly distributed euplerid, *Galidia elegans* (Cytb: average: 1.5%, range: 0–3%, Veron et al., 2017), also sampled in different forest biomes. *Galidia* is distinctly smaller in body size (655–965 g), largely forest-dwelling, and with more limited dispersal capacity than *Cryptoprocta* (Goodman, 2009). The level of genetic polymorphism in *Cryptoprocta* is similar to those measured in the other euplerids (Veron et al., 2017; Veron and Goodman, 2018), but in all cases these taxa are smaller in body size than *Cryptoprocta* and with more restricted geographic ranges.

A comparison of CR results of *Cryptoprocta* and *Mungotictis* samples from the Toliara Province in the central west to southern portions of the island (from this study; Jansen van Vuuren et al., 2012; Veron et al., 2017), illustrates the differences between these two genera. For *Mungotictis*, we found strong polymor-

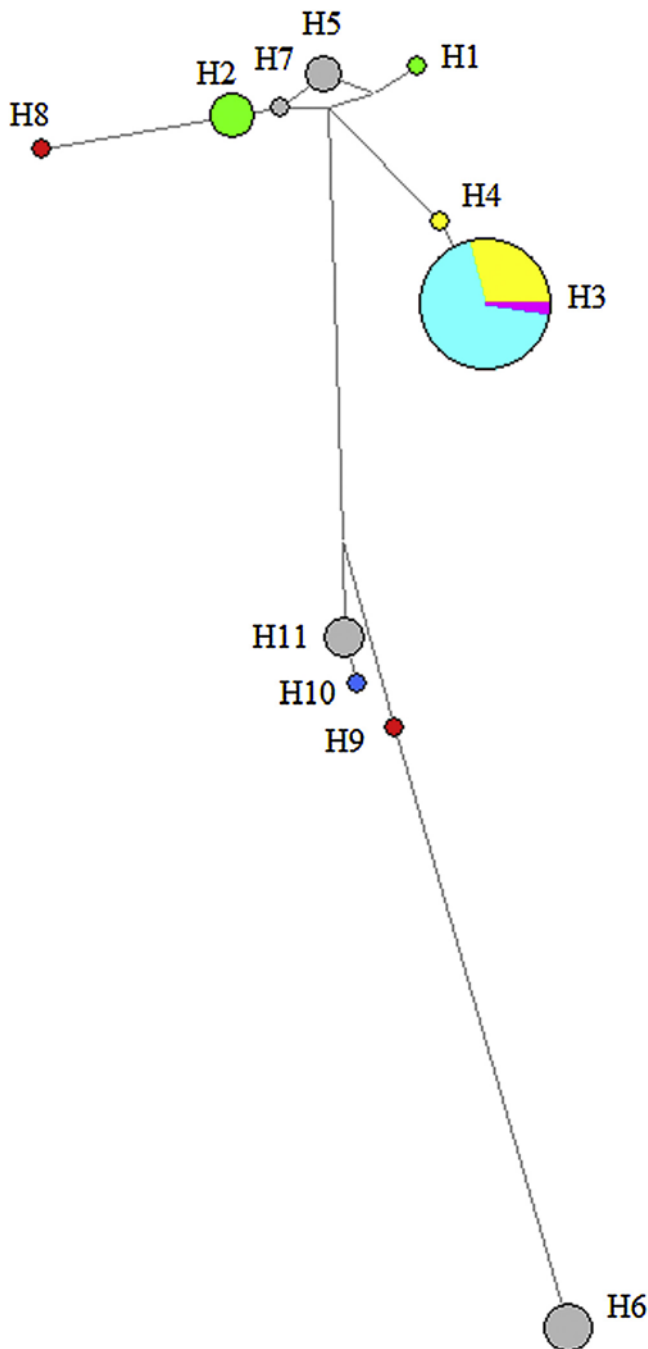


Fig. 3. Median joining network of CR haplotypes. The size of each circle is proportional to the haplotype frequency; the shortest link corresponds to one mutation. For color definitions, see Fig. 1.

phism (19 haplotypes for 51 individuals, and with 36 mutations between the most far apart haplotypes). In contrast, for *Cryptoprocta*, we observed low levels of polymorphism (two haplotypes for 42 individuals, separated only by one mutation; see Table A 2; Fig. A 4). Although this difference could be associated with sampling limitations, it nonetheless indicates important differences in genetic variation patterns between these two monotypic genera.

Mungotictis, which lives in small groups over a vital domain of ca 12–50 ha (see Razafimanantsoa, 2003; Schneider et al., 2016), is strictly forest-dwelling, unknown in open habitats or heavily dis-

turbed forest zones, and has lower dispersal capacity with daily travelled distances of 2200 m (Albignac, 1976; Razafimanantsoa, 2003; Goodman, 2009; Jansen Van Vuuren et al., 2012). In contrast, *Cryptoprocta* is larger, has larger home ranges (up to 26 km²) and can cross long distances (e.g. 7.3 km in 16 h, Hawkins, 2003), particularly in forest ecosystems, and occasional forays into anthropogenic habitats (Lührs and Kappeler, 2013; Lührs et al., 2013). These aspects might help explain certain inferences associated with dispersal in the fosa and population admixture illustrated by the low mitochondrial DNA polymorphism, and the absence of nuclear DNA polymorphism. The past few decades has seen considerable levels of deforestation in the northern portion of the Toliara Province, resulting in notable fragmentation of the regional forests (Zinner et al., 2014). Given the measured levels of polymorphism in these two genera of euplerids, this would imply that, before habitat fragmentation, *Cryptoprocta* dispersed across the landscape at a distinctly higher rate than *Mungotictis*.

In *Cryptoprocta*, as in smaller euplerids, we obtained some geographic structure, although the genetic distances remained quite low between regions in the fosa. Individuals from the northwest (Ankarafantsika) and east (Ambavaniasy), distinctly different biomes, shared the same Cytb haplotypes. This could be explained by the fact that the elevational range of this genus spans from near sea-level to about 2500 (Goodman, 2013), and, hence, dispersal over the principal north-south aligned mountain range that bisects the island would presumably not pose a barrier, specifically when forest cover was more extensive.

As expected, the sampled populations from the central west, from a limited geographical areas (Ambadira, Kirindy [CNFEREF] Forest, and Kirindy Mitea), were closely related, and shared the same Cytb haplotypes or belong to the same CR haplogroups. Despite the limited geographical distance to the above named populations (from around 220 km to 340 km), the individual from the Beanka Forest, a bit further north, was genetically very distinct (15 mutations between their CR haplotypes; 2 mutations between their Cytb haplotypes). This could be explained by the separation of these areas by the large and meandering Tsiribihina River, which has its headwaters in the eastern portion of the island, and could limit *Cryptoprocta* dispersal between the two regions. Watersheds are known to act as important barriers for other terrestrial vertebrates (see e.g. Goodman and Ganzhorn, 2004; Wilmé et al., 2006). Surprisingly, the two individuals from Ranomafana National Park (center-southeast) were quite distant from each other. These results are difficult to explain, but the genetic data from this site are limited (only CR sequences) due to degraded DNA available from these poorly preserved samples.

One important result of this study is the higher genetic diversity of captive *Cryptoprocta* as compared to wild animals. This can be partially accounted for by certain portions of the island not being represented within the samples used in this study. In turn, the higher genetic diversity of captive *Cryptoprocta* can be explained by the regular sourcing of wild animals into captivity until 2009, based on the studbook (Reiter, 2015). Also, there is good representation of wild lineages found in the current study within zoo populations, as shown by the shared haplotypes between natural populations and animals in zoos. Moreover, we found one zoo lineage that was not represented in the sampled wild populations. Similarly, information from 26 microsatellite loci of 28 fosas from nine European zoos suggested good levels of genetic polymorphism (Vogler et al., 2009).

The genealogy obtained from the studbook provides some background on the parentage of captive born animals, but given

the lack of information on the origin of wild animals brought into captivity, little can be gleaned on the associated phylogeography of the recuperated lineages. The one exception is the individuals sent to the Montpellier zoo in 1973, which were apparently from the northeast coast (Albignac, 1975). These animals were in fact genetically close to wild individuals from the northwest (Ankarafantsika), and not from the northeast as would have been expected based on their origin. However, our results also showed that wild individuals from east and the west (Ankarafantsika and Ambavaniasy) were quite close to each other.

The genetic diversity and presence of different lineages in *Cryptoprocta* held in zoos bodes well for the captive breeding program. Most importantly, data reported herein indicate that further individuals from the wild would not be required for reinforcing or increasing genetic diversity of the zoo populations. As we found no evidence that wild populations contain strongly divergent lineages, we suggest that there is no evidence for and the need to recognize separate conservation units (Manel et al., 2003). As illustrated by our analyses, zoo populations have a strongly mixed pedigree.

Further, based on the absence of strongly divergent lineages, no evidence of extant populations of *C. spelea* was found, nor strong genetic differences that might align with variable morphs or taxa based on folk taxonomy as circumscribed by the *fosa mainty* and *fosa mena* (Decary, 1950).

As the fosa does not commonly occur in human-dominated landscapes (Logan et al., 2015), conservation programs associated with this species should focus on forest habitat protection (see e.g. Kremen et al., 2008) and maintain or reestablish forest corridors linking forest fragments, as proposed for other organisms (see e.g. Schwitzer et al., 2013; Ramiadantsoa et al., 2015). Also, actions should be conducted to reduce human hunting pressure through different types of rural public education programs, and to manage invasive carnivorans that are known to affect the density of native species (Farris et al., 2015, 2016, 2017) and introduce different diseases (Pomerantz et al., 2016; Rasambainarivo and Goodman, in press).

While this current study provides important information on patterns of genetic variability in *Cryptoprocta*, additional genetic studies on wild populations are urgently needed. New samples can be obtained through non-invasive sampling techniques or trapping-releasing wild animals; in the latter case, this needs to be conducted by experienced field staff. In particular, samples are required from zones not covered in the current study. These new analyses should add further insights, specifically to improve geographic coverage, detect other lineages, and conduct finer scale population genetic studies. In particular, it would be crucial to test if habitat fragmentation is affecting the genetic diversity and structure of the species (see e.g. Rivera-Ortiz et al., 2015).

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mambio.2018.04.007>.

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